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background

U.S. Department

THREE NEW AFRICAN NATIONS

MOROCCO • TUNISIA • LIBYA

DEPARTMENT OF STATE

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MOROCCO

Morocco is one of the North African states which have in recent years emerged from protectorate status into full sovereignty and independence. Although young as a modern nation, Morocco is old in terms of culture and tradition. Its Arabic name is El Maghreb el Aksa—the Farthest West; and it is, of course, the westernmost Arabic-speaking country.

Morocco is not the forbidding desert of popular imagination but a land of great scenic beauty. The country has mountains similar to those of Colorado, flat farm lands such as are found in Kansas, and sunshine and flowers which remind one of southern California. The Sahara occupies less space in Morocco than the towering Atlas Mountains, the fertile northern plain, and the rich coastal region, where sardine fishermen have found a livelihood far more lucrative than that ever known by the pirates who once infested these waters.

With a population of approximately 10 million and a total area of 190,000 square miles (roughly twice the size of Minnesota), Morocco already constitutes an important member of the family of free nations. Its people are intelligent and capable; they have courage and tenacity; and their hospitality is traditional. With some outside assistance, there is no limit to the progress they can make.

THE LAND

Topography

Morocco is dominated by the Atlas mountains. The Great Atlas range, extending northeast from the Atlantic coast on into Algeria, ranges in elevation from about 5,000 feet to more than 13,000. To the north of its central stretch is the Middle Atlas, the chief watershed between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean.

To the southwest, between the Great Atlas and the Sahara, is another range, the Anti-Atlas. Separating the two ranges is the Sous River Valley. The terrain between the Middle Atlas and the Atlantic Ocean consists of plains and high tablelands interrupted by gorges cut by rivers flowing from the mountains. Farther south, a broad plain extends from the Great Atlas to the coast. The Moulouya River parallels the Middle Atlas on the west and flows northward to the Mediterranean.

North and west of the Atlas mountain ranges stretch the great plains—the best agricultural country—with the Rif mountains separating them from the Mediterranean coastline. South of the Atlas ranges, save for occasional natural or artificial oases, the land is largely desert.

Climate

Morocco has two seasons: a short, rainy winter and a long, dry summer, separated by transitional seasons almost too short to be noticeable. Rains are characteristically irregular, violent, and brief. Total precipitation is not great and varies from year to year. In winter there is occasionally frost and snow in all parts of Morocco except along the southern part of the west coast. Several Atlas peaks are perpetually snowcapped.

Temperatures vary considerably from region to region. Inland below freezing temperatures, accompanied by frequent frosts, prevail in winter, while summer temperatures are often well over 100° F.

Because of the heavier rainfall there, agriculture is concentrated in the long, fertile northwestern plain—about 100 miles at its widest point. Irrigation systems are now being developed to offset irregular or scant rainfall.

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SPAIN
GIBRALTAR (U.K.)
Strait of Gibraltar
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
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Oued Guir
Colomb-Béchar
Mogador
Marrakech
Ouarzazate
Oued Ziz
Oued Dra
Agadir
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IFNI
(Southern boundary of Morocco as yet undefined)
Boundaries and names are not necessarily those recognized by the U. S. Government.
MOROCCO
International boundary
National or colonial capital
Selected road
Selected railroad
0 50 100 Miles
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THE PEOPLE

Racial Stocks

The principal racial stocks in Morocco are Berber and Arab, the former easily predominating. The first people noted in the recorded history of the country were the Berbers, who are believed to have emigrated from different parts of Europe. The date of the emigration is not known, but Egyptian inscriptions of 1700 B. C. refer to the Berbers in various regions across North Africa.

A succession of Arab invasions resulted in the spread of Arab culture. On the Moroccan plains, where there was more sustained contact between the Berbers and the Arabs, there was frequent intermarriage and the Arabic language was almost universally accepted. In the mountains, on the other hand, the Berbers tended to retain their early racial characteristics to a surprising degree.

The official language of the country is Arabic, but French and Spanish are spoken by a considerable number of Moroccans, including Moroccan Government officials.

The language of the Berbers, very distinct from Arabic and very like an extinct Hamitic tongue, consists of numerous dialects.

Religion, Customs, and Education

Islam is the religion of Morocco.

There is still a strong Moslem tradition that a woman should not show her face—the majority are still veiled when in public—and they only rarely accompany their husbands to social functions outside their own society. However, there are local groups working for the "emancipation" of Moroccan women—for their civil rights and their full participation in the political and cultural life of the country.

Although a considerable number of Berbers adopted the Moslem religion of the Arabs with fervor, it was in many cases little more than an outward observance. They eat foods which other Moslems consider forbidden, and their women are generally unveiled.

Under a recent decree Islam Sharia law has been placed in effect throughout Morocco, but some of the Berber tribes, like the Ait Haddidu, have retained their ancient tribal legal system.

Many local customs of centuries ago still survive in the rural area where tribal bonds are strong. Authority stems, for the most part, from the chief or patriarch of the tribe. A number of villages form a tribe, and sometimes the tribes may be linked in loose confederations. There is an age-old system of mutual assistance on the farms, and a village often provides its own modest social services, including care of the old and poor. Local power lies in the village council. An amin or mayor is elected from one of the leading families.

Illiteracy is common, but the new Moroccan Government has introduced plans to develop its educational system to remedy this situation. Religious schools offer elementary and higher education, a number of the latter schools being attached to mosques. The most notable is the Kairoween University at Fez which was once the leading center of learning in the Islamic world. The university has annexes in several other Moroccan cities.

The Minorities

According to statistics an estimated 380,000 Europeans live in Morocco, the great majority being French nationals. Some of these families have been residing in Morocco for three generations, and their children have often learned to speak Berber and Arabic. Most of the French live in the cities, but there are also many farmers who helped to create some of Morocco's best vineyards, orchards, grain fields, and dairy farms. Recent estimates indicate that about 35,000 French returned permanently to France in 1956 after Morocco gained its independence. The second largest European group in Morocco is composed of 110,000 Spaniards, located principally in the northern area.

There are about 190,000 Moroccan Jews, many of whom claim that their ancestors settled in Morocco after the fall of Jerusalem (71 B. C.), or even earlier. Later their ranks were reinforced by Jews expelled from Spain.

PRINCIPAL CITIES

The largest cities of Morocco, mostly commercial centers, are principally along the Atlantic coastal plain.

Casablanca. This modern metropolis of 850,000 inhabitants is Morocco's chief seaport and the fourth largest city in Africa. The architecture of

the city is modern and functional, and the city is justly proud of its white skyscrapers, luxurious hotels, beautiful homes, fine office buildings, and excellent transportation facilities. Casablanca is the location of over 75 percent of all the industry of Morocco. This sprawling city occupies one-third of the country's entire urban area.

In November 1942, during World War II, Casablanca was invaded by Allied landing forces, and for the rest of the war its airfield was used by the United States. In January 1943 Casablanca was the site of the conference between President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, at which they planned the offensives that led eventually to the surrender of Germany, Italy, and Japan.

Marrakech. Some 150 miles south of Casablanca, in the foothills of the Atlas Mountains, is the walled city of Marrakech. It lies in the center of a palm oasis covering more than 50 square miles, and above it towers the snowcapped ridge of the Great Atlas.

Founded in 1062, Marrakech has always been known to Moroccans as the "city of earthly delights." Today this city of 241,000 inhabitants is the southern capital of Morocco. The Palace of Bahia, which with its gardens covers an extensive area of the city, is a residence of the present Sultan of Morocco. Marrakech is the site of a masterpiece of its kind, the world-famous Mosque of the Koutoubia with its magnificent tower-minaret. The city is also known for the tombs of the ancient dynasty of Sherifs or noblemen called Saadians, dating back to the 16th and 17th centuries.

Fez. Founded more than 1,100 years ago by Idris II, a direct descendant of the Prophet Mohammed, Fez has always held a special place in Moroccan hearts. Here is the 1,000-year-old Kairoween University, where the curriculum is based entirely upon the Koran and to which scholars once came from all the Islamic world. The Kairoween Mosque in Fez is the largest in all Morocco. Here, too, is the tomb of Idris II, one of Morocco's holiest shrines, which still draws many pilgrims.

Situated some 200 miles northeast of Casablanca, Fez, with a population of 221,000, is really three cities, 1 mile apart. There is "Fes el Bali" (Fez the old), on a site probably inhabited

Center of the city of Casablanca.

before the 9th century; "Fes Djedid" (Fez the new), so called because it is less than 700 years old; and the Ville Nouvelle (New City), present home of most European residents.

Rabat. This city of 220,000 has a picturesque location on the ocean. It is the capital of the nation, the latest in a long series of Moroccan capitals, and the seat of the palace of the King. Its principal "industry," like that of Washington, D. C., is government. The city dates from the 12th century, when its full name was Ribat el Fath—the camp of victory—to commemorate Moorish victories in Spain. In its subsequent history the city enjoyed periods of splendor followed by years of neglect as some Sultans favored it and others ignored it.

Rabat is situated, along with its twin city Salé, at the mouth of the River Bou Regreg. The "Kasbah," which guards the promontory where the river joins the sea, was the equivalent of the English feudal castle. It once housed not only the "baronial lord" but also his retainers and their families.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

The history of Morocco has been shaped largely by its peculiarly strategic location. Beginning with the Phoenicians, a long series of invaders have swept the land. In the centuries before the Christian era commercial colonies were established by the Phoenicians in northern Morocco, including Tangier—first known as Tingis—founded about 570 B. C.

From the 1st century B. C. until the 5th century A. D. it was a Roman province. Then the Vandals and Visigoths overran the country and established a loose suzerainty over the independent Berber tribes. Later came the Byzantine Greeks.

Finally, following the death of Mohammed the Prophet in the 7th century, the Arabs pushed their Islamic empire west, sweeping over North Africa and into Morocco. There was some fighting, but the Berbers were divided by tribal conflicts and soon joined the invaders. The new Islamic religion had a great appeal to the Berbers. Thus when the first Moslem forces pushed on to Spain, three-quarters of the troops were Moroccan Berbers.

In the meantime one of Mohammed's descendants, Moulay Idris ben Abdullah, arrived in Morocco and was accepted as ruler. In A. D. 788 he established the first independent state as Idris I.

In A. D. 1061 another wave of warriors—Moslems, but of Berber stock—swept into Morocco from the south. They carried their conquest into Spain where they subdued their coreligionists as well as the Christians, establishing the Almoravide regime, principal monument of which is the city of Marrakech.

Next, in 1174, came a Berber tribe, the Zenata, from the Atlas mountains region. Its dynasty was known as the Almohades, and it produced some wise and able rulers; but over the years its power was dissipated by internal strife.

As Christian invasions threatened, native religious leaders gained power, and in 1549 the Saadian dynasty was established. It claimed Sherifian status, that is, descent from Mohammed.

The Saadians produced some notable rulers, but internecine strife soon undermined their power, and in 1649 a powerful southern Moroccan group established the Alouite dynasty, which is still on the throne of Morocco. It claims Sherifian descent from Ali, the son-in-law of the Prophet.

Spheres of Influence

During the 19th century when European powers were seizing control of remnants of the moribund Ottoman Empire,[1] France gained control of both Algeria and Tunisia. Incidents along the Moroccan-Algerian border followed. Great Britain in 1904 recognized Morocco as within the French sphere of influence. In return, France recognized Egypt as within the British sphere of influence.

In the same year France made a treaty with Spain, recognizing a special Spanish interest in the northern and southern areas of Morocco; and the subsequent Algeciras Conference in 1906 recognized France's "special position" and entrusted policing of Morocco to France and Spain jointly.

Meanwhile the Sultan's authority was often reduced by internal strife to little more than control of the principal towns. Tribes revolted on slight provocation. Some attacked European

[1] During the 16th century the Ottoman Empire had extended its rule over most of North Africa but was unable to subdue the Moroccans.

settlements established by treaty with the Sultan and thus invited "retribution" by the offended power. Spain sent expeditions to Melilla, in northern Morocco (1909) and to Larache (1911) and claimed the regions opposite the Spanish coast. These actions, as well as constant French

Tafraout, a village in the heart of the Anti-Atlas Mountains.

operations in Morocco, led Germany to become uneasy over the increased influence of her rivals, principally France, in Morocco. On July 1, 1911, occurred the famous "Agadir incident" which nearly precipitated the First World War. The German gunboat *Panther* appeared off the port of Agadir in southwestern Morocco to "protect German interests." However, after long negotiation, Germany agreed to give France a free hand in Morocco, in return for a section of the French Congo.

Establishment of French Protectorate

A new revolt in the region of Fez early in 1912 alarmed Sultan Moulay Hafid, who called directly on the French for assistance, and a French military expedition was sent to Fez. In March of that year a formal treaty was signed establishing a French protectorate over Morocco. In November, by another agreement signed at Madrid, France conceded to Spain a zone of influence along the Mediterranean coast and in the south. The northern area was known as the Spanish Zone of Morocco until 1956, when it was integrated as part of the newly independent state of Morocco.

In 1923 the former International Zone of Tangier was established by a convention signed by France, Spain, and Great Britain and later adhered to by other powers. Occupied by Spain during World War II, Tangier's international administration was restored in 1945. The international regime was abrogated on October 29, 1956, and the former international zone once more became an integral part of Morocco.

Rise of Nationalism

With the end of World War II came a strong Moroccan movement for independence, spearheaded by the efforts of a group of Moroccan nationalist leaders who enjoyed widespread popular support. The first truly nationalist political parties, formed in 1943, based their arguments for independence on such pronouncements as the Atlantic Charter. In August 1953 the French deposed Sultan Mohamed V who had become the central figure of the nationalist movement, and exiled him to Corsica and later to Madagascar. Popular reaction against this move took the form of organized terrorism in the cities and, later, guerrilla operations in rural areas.

After considerable bloodshed on both sides, the French agreed in November 1955 to the return of Mohamed V to his throne.

Moroccan Independence

In December 1955 the first Moroccan Cabinet was formed, and on March 2, 1956, Morocco and France signed a joint declaration which gave Morocco the status of an independent and sovereign state. Since that time Morocco has assumed jurisdiction over both its internal and external affairs, including internal security, and has organized its own army.

On April 7, 1956, the Moroccans and the Spanish signed a joint declaration and protocol ending the Spanish protectorate over the northern zone.

Finally, on October 29, 1956, Morocco and representatives of the powers of the Tangier International Committee of Control signed a declaration

and annexed protocol abolishing the international administration and recognizing the authority of the Sultan over Tangier. The future political organization of the international zone was left to the Moroccan Government.

Today Morocco is working out many important problems resulting from its new independence. These include the formulation of effective economic reform and development programs; the training of skilled administrators to replace the French and Spanish; the conclusion of basic accords with France and Spain, especially on economic and cultural matters; introduction of a constitutional government; and the complete integration of the northern and southern zones and Tangier.

THE GOVERNMENT

In principle, Morocco is an absolute monarchy in which the King Mohamed V exercises supreme authority, including supreme religious authority in his capacity of leader (Imam) of the faithful. He resides usually in Rabat, but occasionally visits one of the other traditional capitals—Fez, Tangier, Marrakech, or Meknes. His royal decree is necessary to promulgate the laws of the land.

Executive power resides in the king. He is advised and assisted by the council of ministers and a three-member council of the throne.

Legislation is by decree of the king. On November 12, 1956, a national consultative assembly, composed of 76 members appointed by the king, was convened for its initial session. It includes 10 Independence (Istiqlal) Party members, 10 members of the National Moroccan Labor Federation, and 6 members of a minority party. Others represent the farmers, professional groups, cultural and youth groups, artisans and merchants, the Islamic scholars, the Jewish community, and remote desert tribes.

The function of the assembly is to make recommendations to the king regarding governmental activities and national policy and, in particular, to scrutinize the budget. The assembly has been authorized, however, to establish "a veritable representative system, permitting the people to manage public affairs in the framework of a constitutional monarchy."

The judicial system is now being reorganized. Heretofore, a dual system of justice prevailed, with French and Spanish courts having jurisdiction over most aliens and mixed cases, while Moslem administrators and religious judges maintained jurisdiction in instances involving Moslems.

Political Parties and Labor Organizations

Istiqlal (Independence) Party. Founded in January 1944 when it issued a manifesto demanding independence, this party is the acknowledged successor of the first Moroccan nationalist organization, the Comité d'Action Marocaine, formed in the 1930's. It is the largest and most powerful party in the country—the one party organized on a national scale.

Shoura (Democratic Independence) Party. Although this is the second largest party, it is believed to be numerically small. In 1946 it broke away from the Istiqlal, from which it differs in that it lays greater stress on a constitutional form of government.

Moroccan Communist Party. This party in Morocco is a subsidiary of the French Communist Party. Outlawed since 1952, it has nevertheless been operating openly now for more than a year. It is not believed to have more than a few hundred hard-core members.

Union Marocaine du Travail (UMT). This Moroccan Labor Union was formed on March 20, 1955, and sponsored by the anti-Communist International Confederation of Free Trade Unions. It has become the principal Moroccan labor organization, claiming a membership of over 500,000 in February 1956. It has organized many segments of Moroccan labor and is now in the process of organizing agricultural workers.

THE ECONOMY

Agriculture and mining are the two principal fields of productive activity in Morocco. Since World War II there has been some industrialization, notably in light industry and mineral extraction facilities, but there is a shortage of capital for industry much of which today is operating under government subsidies.

Agriculture

Agriculture provides the livelihood for approximately 85 percent of Morocco's population and accounts for almost 50 percent of its exports.

Cereals form the most important commodity, followed by citrus and other fruits, green vegetables, olives, almonds, cork, wine, livestock, and fibers.

Agricultural production is variable, depending on the weather and subject to intermittent plagues of locusts.

Water resources are quite plentiful in the coastal areas. Recent hydrogeological investigations have recorded some 20,000 wells, indicating the existence of ample supplies of underground water at shallow depths.

In the southern regions considerable acreage is being irrigated. By January 1955 about 150,000 acres had been equipped with irrigation facilities, and it is anticipated that the area under irrigation will be increased to 750,000 acres by the end of 1957. In irrigated areas, yields per acre have increased to almost four times the yield per acre for the country as a whole.

Less than 3 percent of the farmers use modern farming methods. Consequently production is not so high as the fertility of the land would warrant.

Mining

After agriculture, mining is Morocco's largest industry. In 1954 it accounted for 35 percent of the country's exports. Moroccan phosphate reserves are among the largest in the world, and current production is about 17 percent of the total world output. Phosphates account for a considerable percentage of the state's revenue (export value in 1955: $60.9 million). Other important minerals include cobalt, manganese, lead, zinc, and iron ore.

A relatively insignificant amount of petroleum is produced and refined in Morocco, but petroleum exploration activity continues.

Coal deposits estimated at 150 million metric tons are considered the most important in the entire Mediterranean area. The bulk of the deposits is to be found at Djerada in northeastern Morocco. Until a rail spur was completed in early 1953, inaccessibility was the chief deterrent to coal exploitation. In 1953, the first year of production, output was reported to be 565,000 metric tons.

Industry

There is almost no heavy industry in Morocco, but there is a variety of small industries such as canneries, textile mills, sugar refineries, and cement, paint, and iron works. There are three steel foundries and a lead smelter.

Although machines have displaced some Moroccan handicraftsmen, there are still many skilled workers who ply their trade in the cities. Using the tools and skills passed down by his father, the Moroccan artisan presses intricate Arabic designs onto richly dyed bookbindings, handbags, belts, and portfolios. The making of fancy saddles also remains a thriving business. Morocco's leather exports brought $3 million in 1954.

Most fine leatherwork comes from Fez, silver jewelry from Tiznit in southwest Morocco, and glazed pottery from Safi on the Atlantic coast. Other handicraft products include carpets, brass and copper work, baskets, and wrought iron work.

Foreign Trade

The value of Moroccan trade was $793 million in 1956. Exports, amounting to $324 million in that year, included phosphates, manganese, iron, lead and zinc ore, agricultural products, fishing products (especially canned sardines), wool and other animal hair.

Imports, which rose to $469 million in 1956, included foodstuffs (especially sugar and tea), petroleum products, fabrics and clothing, construction machinery, tractors, harvesting and haymaking machines, railroad cars, trucks, buses, and automobiles.

The bulk of trade (about 60 percent) has been with France or the franc zone. Trade with the dollar zone amounts to approximately 6 percent of the total.

Banking and Monetary Unit

The State Bank of Morocco, 57.2 percent owned by French institutions and individuals, was established in 1907 as a private international corpora-

The souk (market place) of the city of Taza, just east of Fez.

tion to operate in all parts of Morocco. Its charter to act as the financial agent for the Moroccan Government expires in 1966. It issues bank notes, purchases and sells Government treasury bonds, and acts as a commercial bank. The legal seat of the bank is Tangier, but its administrative office is in Paris. It has branches in most important Moroccan cities. In addition, there are numerous other banks engaged in general banking and investment and mortgage banking.

The basic monetary unit of Morocco is the Moroccan franc, which is tied to and has the same value as the French franc. The Spanish peseta is also legal tender in northern Morocco but will soon be retired from circulation. The official rate of the franc is 420 francs to the dollar. The peseta rate fluctuates between 43 and 48 pesetas per dollar.

Transportation

Early in 1957 Morocco had 1,250 miles of railway, mostly government owned or controlled. One main line starts at Casablanca, joins the Tangier-Fez line at Petitjean (just north of Meknes), and continues eastward into Algeria. The main north-south lines extend from Tangier to Petitjean, from Casablanca to Marrakech, and from Nemours (just across the Algerian-Moroccan border) to the important Algerian mining area of Colomb-Béchar. Numerous short spur-lines connect important mining or agricultural centers with the ports. Forty percent of the railways are electrified, and practically all lines are standard gage and, for the most part, single track.

Linking the principal cities of the interior with the ports and with Algeria are some 4,000 miles of main roads which are wide and paved. There are also some 3,000 miles of secondary roads, and more than 25,000 miles of minor roads. At present an extensive road-building program is under way.

MOROCCO'S INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Morocco is on friendly terms with the Western powers as well as the Arab nations and is disposed toward close cooperation with all. Moroccan foreign policy is motivated by a desire to see Morocco maintain its freedom and independence

and contribute to peace and stability in northwestern Africa.

An important step toward that end is being taken in current negotiations aimed at the solution of the Franco-Moroccan difficulties arising from transition from protectorate to independent status. There also remain the complex economic problems arising from the integration of the former Spanish zone in Morocco and the difficulties resulting from the liquidation of the international regime at Tangier.

Morocco became a member of the United Nations on November 12, 1956, and it is also a member of many of the specialized agencies of the United Nations. Application has been made for membership in the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD).

UNITED STATES AND MOROCCO

Relations between the United States and Morocco go back to the year of the signing of the United States Constitution. In 1787 a treaty of friendship was signed between Morocco and the United States. It was renewed in 1836 and is still valid.

In 1789 President George Washington wrote the Sultan of Morocco: "The encouragement which your Majesty has been pleased generously to give to our commerce with your dominions; the punctuality with which you have caused the Treaty with us to be observed; and the just and generous measures taken in the name of Captain Proctor [one of the U. S. treaty negotiators] make a deep impression on the United States and confirm their respect for, and attachment to, your Imperial Majesty. It gives me great pleasure to have this opportunity of assuring your Majesty that, while I remain at the head of this Nation, I shall not cease to promote every measure that may conduce to the friendship and harmony which so happily subsist between your Empire and them. . . ."

Shortly thereafter the United States sent a diplomatic representative to Morocco, and it has maintained diplomatic representation there (at Tangier until 1956) throughout the entire history of our relations with that country, including the 44-year period of French protectorate.

The United States recognized the independence of Morocco in March 1956 and 3 months later

A view of the town of Ouezzane in the Rif Mountains.

established a new embassy at Rabat, reducing the status of the U. S. legation in Tangier to that of a consulate general. The United States also maintains a consulate general in Casablanca.

U. S. Information Service libraries are functioning in Tangier, Rabat, and Casablanca, and the Department of State sponsors an extensive exchange-of-persons program with Morocco. A small number of leaders and students, in the fields of education, journalism, and government, have come to the United States, and some nine American teachers have gone to Morocco.

In Tangier the United States maintains a Voice of America relay station.

On October 7, 1956, the United States renounced its extraterritorial rights in Morocco. This action means that American residents in that country no longer have the privilege of trial by U. S. consular courts but are subject, like other residents, to Moroccan justice. It also means that the United States no longer can extend its protection to chosen "proteges"—Moroccans or other non-Americans in Morocco.[2]

U. S. Air Bases

By agreements signed in 1950–51 with the French Government, the United States acquired rights to construct and operate four U. S. Air Force bases and one naval air base on land that was placed at our disposition by the French. Morocco's acquisition of full sovereignty has created a new situation, and negotiations, begun in May 1956, are under way to "regularize" directly with Morocco the status of the bases.

[2] The United States acquired the right of consular justice in Morocco by the Treaty of Meknes in 1836. The right to name proteges in Morocco was acquired in 1880; in 1956 there were 115 U. S. proteges there—most of them local employees of the U. S. Embassy or consulates. The United States has now renounced its rights of extraterritoriality in all other countries where it possessed them—China, Korea, Japan, Egypt, Turkey, et al. Termination of extraterritorial rights has no relation to jurisdiction of U. S. military personnel, who are covered by special agreements.

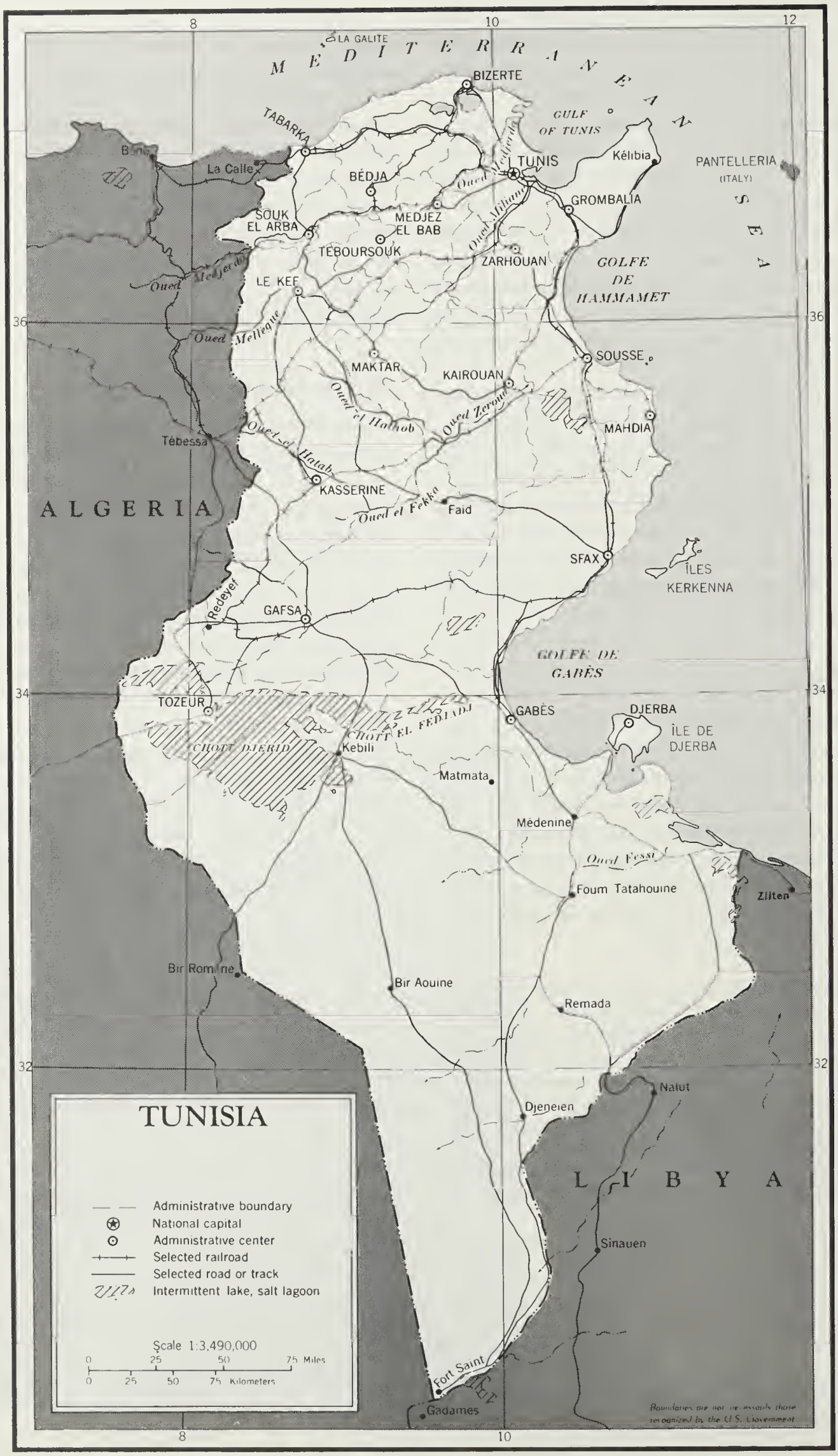
Morocco today contributes an important forward area in U. S. strategic air defense. Equally important is the training function of our African bases—there are thousands of American airmen stationed at Sidi Slimane, Nouasseur, and Boulhaut (in northwest Morocco), and Ben Guerir (just north of Marrakech). Our base at Sidi Slimane, for instance, serves as the center for "shakedown" operations and intensive training for units which have completed their preliminary training at home. North Africa's perfect flying weather enables crews to train continually.

U. S. Economic Assistance

In accordance with the U. S. policy of aiding free nations to maintain their freedom and independence, the United States, in answer to a request from Morocco, has agreed to furnish economic and technical assistance to this newly independent country. Negotiations for an economic aid program were concluded in Rabat on April 2, 1957. Morocco was promised $20 million in development assistance funds, technical assistance, and aid in administering a child-feeding program.

An important adjunct to U. S. aid has been the money spent in construction and maintenance of the American bases in Morocco. In 1951–54 these expenditures amounted to some $35 million annually, to which should be added about $20 million spent annually by the Americans—both military and civilian—connected with the bases. Present annual maintenance expenditures are about $20 million.

Following a tour of Africa in the fall of 1956, Senator Theodore Francis Green, Chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, stated: "I believe it is in our interest to assist the Moroccans in this early period of independence, both by long-term loans, if need be, and by encouraging investment of private American capital. The resources are there. Financing is needed. Furthermore, our strategic interest in Morocco more than warrants any contribution we can make to the stabilization of economic and political conditions."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M E D I T E R R A N E A N
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Oued Miliane
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ZARHOUAN
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Médenine
Oued Fessi
Foum Tatahouine
Zilten
Bir Romane
Bir Aouine
Remada
Nalut
Djeneien
LIBYA
Sinauen
Fort Saint
Gadames
TUNISIA
Administrative boundary
National capital
Administrative center
Selected railroad
Selected road or track
Intermittent lake, salt lagoon
Scale 1:3,490,000
0 25 50 75 Miles
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Boundaries are not necessarily those recognized by the U.S. Government

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TUNISIA

Midway between Gibraltar and Suez, on the northern coast of Africa, lies Tunisia, a country which in early history was the center of large and splendid empires of advanced civilizations. As a newly independent state, Tunisia is again called upon to manage her own affairs; and with its considerable physical resources and the energy of its people, Tunisia gives much promise that she will again flourish and play an important role in the concert of nations.

GEOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Tunisia's strategic position is clearly shown by the fact that the country reaches out so far into the Mediterranean toward Sicily that it almost cuts that vital sea in two. The country is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean, on the west by Algeria, and on the southeast by Libya. It has an area of 48,300 square miles—about the size of Louisiana.

Topography–Climate

The Atlas Mountain chain, which extends across North Africa, divides the country into a northern and a southern region—known locally as the region above and the region below the Tell Atlas.

The relatively well-watered north contains three subregions: the northwest with cork-oak forests; the north central with excellent grain and livestock land; and the northeast region of Tunis and Cape Bon, important for its grains, wine, citrus fruit, garden produce, and livestock.

The arid plateau extending southward from the mountain range merges with the Sahara, and the southern two-fifths of the country lies wholly within the Sahara. The central part of the plateau is suitable for livestock and dry-farming; the coastal area is known for its extensive olive groves; and the desert has large esparto grass [1] ranges and several date-palm oases.

The climate, like California's, is temperate and variable by regions. Its major controlling influences are the Mediterranean and the Sahara. There is moderate rainfall in the north; the south experiences dry desert-like climate the year round.

THE PEOPLE

The population of Tunisia is about 3.8 million, of which 90 percent is Moslem. There are approximately 250,000 Europeans—about one-fifteenth of the population. The French are by far the most numerous of the Europeans, although some 80,000 Italians and 7,000 British of Maltese origin also inhabit the country. Approximately 30,000 Jews are among Tunisia's oldest inhabitants.

Between 60 and 70 percent of the Tunisian population is engaged in agriculture. The remaining third are employed as handicraft artisans, small shopkeepers, unskilled laborers, and civil servants. An increasing number of Tunisians are in the professions.

The Europeans, apart from some 5,000 rural settlers, reside largely in urban centers and are engaged mostly in trade and industry, in the professions, and as skilled labor.

PRINCIPAL CITIES

Tunisia's main cities are Tunis, Bizerte, Sousse, Sfax, and Kairouan.

Tunis, the capital, is an active commercial center and seaport. By means of a channel, opened in 1893, Tunis is directly accessible to ocean-going vessels. Tunis is the primary distribution center

[1] This grass is excellent raw material for high quality printing paper.

for imported goods, and here are found the offices of all the principal importing and exporting houses, mining companies, and banks. This is the hub of the Tunisian railway and highway networks and the site of the one important commercial airport in the country.

Its population of 365,000 is approximately one-half Arab, one-third European, and one-tenth Jewish. The Medina (old city) as well as the shops, mosques, whitewashed buildings, and palaces of present and former rulers reflect the Arab influence. The broad avenues of the city, on the other hand, and its modern buildings reflect the European influence.

Bizerte is situated 40 miles northwest of Tunis. It is a naval base and major seaport of about 40,000 inhabitants and a center for grain and iron ore shipments. Heavily bombed during World War II, Bizerte was the staging site for the Allied invasion of Sicily in July 1943.

Sousse (pop. 37,000) and *Sfax* (pop. 55,000) are major seaports of eastern Tunisia. Sfax, the second largest city in Tunisia, is the principal phosphate-shipping center; Sousse is noted for its olives and cereals.

Kairouan (pop. 32,000) lies 80 miles south of Tunis. It is a holy city of the Moslems and the goal of many pilgrimages. Many tourists also come to see its magnificent mosques which are open to visitors of other faiths.

The city is well-known for its carpets and leather goods.

BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The written history of Tunisia dates from the arrival in the 12th century B. C. of Phoenician traders who established permanent settlements in the area. The most famous of these settlements was the city of Carthage, founded in the 9th century B. C. near the present capital city of Tunis.

Successive penetrations by Romans, Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, Spaniards, Turks, Italians, and French followed. All of these invaders sought control of the strategic area overlooking the narrow channel of the Mediterranean Sea separating Africa from Italy.

After a long struggle Rome destroyed Carthage and occupied the country in 146 B. C. It was

The Mosque of Tunis.

the Romans who first called Tunisia "Africa," a name which subsequently was applied to the whole continent.

Roman Africa eventually was invaded by the Vandals who came from far-off Germania in A. D. 439. From 534 to 698 the country was under the domination of Byzantium. The 8th century witnessed the Arab invasions from the East. Kairouan became one of the important bases for Arab conquest and the spreading of the Arabic language and Islamic religion.

In 1574 the Turks annexed Tunisia to the Ottoman Empire, in which it remained until 1881. Turkish administration after 1640 was carried out by a Bey (a Turkish title) in the name of the Sultan of Constantinople.

Protectorate Established

After capturing Tunis and other key cities, the French, through the Treaty of Bardo in 1881 and the Convention of Marsa in 1883, established a protectorate under a French resident-general. The Bey remained head of the country but delegated control of foreign affairs and internal order to the French. In the ensuing years a sizable French colony gradually established itself in the country.

After World War I nationalism gained momentum in Tunisia. In 1920 the Destour (Constitution) Party sought moderate reforms. Under the leadership of Habib Bourguiba, now President, the more dynamic Neo Destour Party was organized in 1934; and the nationalist movement increased steadily in strength and pressed for autonomy and the final goal of independence.

When France fell in 1940, Tunisia remained loyal to the Vichy Government. Late in 1942 Tunisia became the focus of the North African campaign.

Concessions offered by France were at first unacceptable to Tunisian leaders. In March 1952 violence erupted following the breakdown of negotiations with France and the imprisonment of members of the Tunisian cabinet of Mohammed Chenik.

Independence Achieved

After a series of reforms the French Government decided, in July 1954, to open negotiations with Tunisian leaders with the object of setting up a regime of Franco-Tunisian cooperation on a new basis. These negotiations resulted in a series of conventions, signed in July 1955, which gave Tunisia internal autonomy. On March 20, 1956, Tunisia and France signed a protocol proclaiming the sovereignty and independence of Tunisia and ending the 75-year-old protectorate.

Roman ruins in northern Tunisia.

A Constituent Assembly was elected, on March 25, 1956, to draft a constitution for Tunisia,[2] Habib Bourguiba was invested by the Bey as Prime Minister, and a 15-man Cabinet was installed. On July 25, 1957, the Constituent Assembly deposed the Bey and proclaimed the Republic of Tunisia, choosing Bourguiba as its provisional President.

Known to Tunisians as the Supreme Combatant in the struggle for independence, President Bourguiba has spent much of his adult life in the cause of Tunisian nationalism. He visited the United States in 1946 and 1951, before Tunisia achieved independence, and he returned here in November 1956 on an unofficial visit.

Numerous reforms have been introduced in Tunisia since independence. A national police force has been organized, the existing system of

[2] The initial draft of the constitution has been completed and is presently under review.

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ANDORRA
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PORTUGAL
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IFNI
S. Morocco
(Southern boundary of Morocco as yet undefined)
ALGERIA
SPANISH SAHARA
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
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Bathurst
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PORT. GUINEA
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SIERRA LEONE
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SEA
Tripoli
Baghdad
Jerusalem
IRAQ
ISRAEL
'Ammān
Benghazi
Alexandria
Cairo
JORDAN
EGYPT
LIBYA
SAUDI
ARABIA
RED SEA
Mecca
Nile
FRENCH
Khartoum
Asmara
YEMEN
San'ā
EQUATORIAL
SUDAN
ETHIOPIA
AFRICA
Djibouti
FR. SOMAL.
Addis Ababa
Hargeisa
FR. CAMEROONS
BR. SOMAL.
Boundaries and names are not necessarily those recognized by the U. S. Government.
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justice improved, Tunisian women enfranchised, and polygamy outlawed [3]—a remarkable action in a Moslem country.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The Neo-Destour Party (New Constitution) is the largest political party in Tunisia. Founded in 1934 by dissidents from the Destour Party, this movement now overshadows the older party. It has a membership of at least 20,000 and a following of about 800,000. The Neo-Destour Party has been the chief nationalist organization and its pressure is largely responsible for Tunisian independence.

The Destour Party ("old Destour"), the nationalist group which became active following World War I, has declined in influence and now has a membership of only about 1,000.

Présence Française is a small political group whose primary aim is to secure the protection of the rights of the French minority.

The Communist Party, with a hard core of only a few hundred followers, has declined in strength over the past few years. In the March 1956 elections it was badly beaten.

Union Générale Tunisienne du Travail (UGTT), with a membership of about 150,000, is the principal labor organization in Tunisia. It cooperates closely with the Neo-Destour Party and is affiliated with the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions.

TUNISIA'S ECONOMY

Primarily an agricultural country, an exporter of olive oil, esparto grass, grain, wine, citrus fruit, and cork, Tunisia is fortunate in possessing a number of mineral deposits which complement the agricultural economy.

Rough estimates place Tunisia's national income from 120 to 150 billion francs (420 francs equal $1) per year, agriculture accounting for about 40 percent of this income. Per capita annual income is estimated at slightly more than $114.

The Tunisian economy is largely interlocked with that of France: French and Tunisian currencies are still tied together, and the greater part of the Tunisian national debt of $228 million is owed to France.

Agriculture

Tunisia's agricultural production provides the country with basic food crops and several categories of export surpluses. The main products are wheat, barley, and olive oil. Grain is by far the leading product and accounts for approximately one-half of the nation's agricultural income.

Tunisia now ranks as the world's fourth largest olive oil producer, and in the Tunisian's diet nearly a quart of olive oil is consumed per month. Over the past 5 years average olive crops have yielded 60,000 metric tons of oil, with occasional bumper crops exceeding 100,000 tons.

Tunisia is also known for its high-quality dates, grapes, and nuts, as well as for its "Maltese" oranges which are highly prized in Europe. Wine production which had been sharply curtailed owing to phylloxera (plant lice) during the war years is now again being expanded.

The scarcity of water and the vagaries of annual rainfall conditions are the prime factors in restricting growth in Tunisia's agricultural production. Irrigation projects are being carried out, however, in most regions where water resources exist. These efforts, together with projects to restore eroded soil, to distribute conditioned grain seed, to provide grain storage facilities, and to introduce tractor pools, should achieve a definite production increase in time.

Stockraising is the mainstay of many Tunisian farms, since sheep and goats fare well in the semiarid central plateau. Most of the locally produced meat and wool is consumed at home, but there is a small export trade in live cattle, wool, mohair, hides, and skins.

The forests of northwestern Tunisia are important for their cork, which is exported both in its raw state and as finished bottle stoppers. Another important product is the esparto grass, which is exported exclusively to the United Kingdom.

Tunisia's surrounding sea provides fish for local

[3] The law applies only to future marriages. Those Tunisians who maintained two wives prior to the law's enactment may continue to do so.

Rural scene in northern Tunisia.

consumption and certain export specialties such as tuna, sardines, shrimp, and lobster.

Mining and Industry

Tunisia produces phosphate rock, iron ore, lead, and zinc.

The mines employ nearly 13,000 workers and directly or indirectly support 100,000 people; they represent in value 30 percent of Tunisia's exports.

The chief mineral is phosphate rock, which exists in huge quantities in the south. With an output of 2 million metric tons a year (6 percent of world production), this mineral finds a steady outlet in nearby Mediterranean countries. Sizable amounts of the rock are finely ground for direct application as fertilizer.

In the northern part of the country there are large deposits of high-grade iron ore, with the metal content averaging 50 to 55 percent. Tunisian iron ore is rated among the best in the world. Total iron ore reserves in Tunisia are estimated at 30 million tons.

Lead and zinc mines are generally small and are widely dispersed. Production of these metals is small in comparison with that of phosphates and iron ore.

Traces of oil have been found at several points in the country, and a natural gas field was discovered on Cape Bon in the northeast. The gas, with reserves estimated to be sufficient to supply the city of Tunis for 12 years, has been piped and is distributed in the capital.

In general, Tunisia's industrial development is still in its early stages and is centered around the production of superphosphates, pig lead, cement, and building materials, and the processing of agricultural, forestry, and fishery products.

The handicraft industry employs a large number of Tunisians throughout the country. Native clothing, rugs, pottery, copper, and leather goods are made for both the local and export market.

Industrial development is greatly needed if Tunisia is to meet the employment pressures resulting from an increasing population. The Government is making a considerable effort to promote industries, in many cases granting initial tax benefits and loan guaranties to new ventures. Spurred on by such incentives, a number of new industries have recently been established.

Foreign Trade

Tunisia's foreign trade pattern is based on the export of agricultural and mineral products in exchange for consumer goods, raw and semiprocessed materials for industry, economic development equipment, and fuel.

Exports were valued at $130 million in 1956. France, as usual, took the major share of exports—58 percent. Tunisia's next best customers were Great Britain, Algeria, and Italy. Exports to

the United States—about 2 percent of the total value—are encouraged, but the dollar shortage tends to limit imports from the United States to essential goods not readily obtainable in the franc area.

Imports were valued at $185 million in 1956, made up principally of petroleum products, sugar, cotton textiles, machinery, and motor vehicles. France furnished 75 percent of the total imports, followed by Italy, the United States, Algeria, and Great Britain.

The trade payments deficit—about $55 million in 1956—is balanced primarily by capital from France and by French payments to Tunisia for French military and civil personnel in Tunisia, as well as by aid from the United States.

Economic Development

With the cessation in 1943 of war activities in Tunisia, a war damage reconstruction program was initiated. This program, however, was not intended to meet—and did not meet—the country's needs for economic development. In 1947 a modernization plan was drawn up. In the first years of the plan's existence emphasis was placed on the improvement of ports, railways, highways, telecommunications, and other basic facilities; but in addition several large public work projects were launched, notably the Medjerdah River complex with two large dams, an agricultural irrigation and drainage system in the delta area, a water supply line for Tunis, and two hydroelectric plants. More recently there has been a shift to smaller projects, particularly in agriculture.

Under both the development plan and the war damage reconstruction program, basic prewar facilities have been restored, modernized, and expanded, and there has been some increase in the volume of national output; but many of the more important development projects are still in course of construction. The building of basic facilities constitutes only the first step toward the achieve-

Lighthouse of the Isle of Djerba, in the Gulf of Gabes.

Tunisian mounted police.

ment of higher production levels, and the Tunisian Government recognizes that its public works efforts must be followed by private investment in agriculture, mining, and industry in order to obtain the desired increases in national output.

TUNISIA IN WORLD AFFAIRS

During the past year the Tunisian Government has exchanged diplomatic representatives with the principal Western powers and several Arab states. Although her relations with the Middle Eastern countries are friendly, Tunisia is not a member of the Arab League.

Tunisia is now in the process of working out economic, financial, defense, and other important conventions with France. One of the principal problems in her relations with France springs from the presence of some 15,000 French troops which are in Tunisia by a previous agreement. Their withdrawal is being gradually effected.

Although Tunisia has no diplomatic relations with any member of the Soviet bloc, representatives of that group were invited to and participated in the ceremonies commemorating the first anniversary of Tunisia's independence. Satellite nations have participated in the Tunis trade fairs each October and Soviet bloc countries are concluding trade agreements with Tunisia.

Tunisia's foreign policy has recently been summed up by a Tunisian Foreign Office official as follows: "Tunisia wishes to continue its orientation toward the West. At the same time, it plans to maintain friendly ties with the Arab states. Tunisia does not wish to adopt a policy of neutrality toward communism, since Tunisia strongly feels the menace of Communist imperialism. Being oriented toward the West, Tunisia hopes that a North African confederation with close ties to Europe can be established. The principal deterrent to such a confederation is the present conflict in Algeria. This conflict is benefiting nobody, since sooner or later the French will have to accede to Algerian independence."

U. S. POLICIES IN TUNISIA

The United States recognized Tunisian independence on March 20, 1956, and in June the American consulate general in Tunis was elevated to the rank of embassy.

The overall U. S. policy goal regarding Tunisia is to aid that country to strengthen and consolidate its independence.

In March 1957 Vice President Richard Nixon visited Tunis to participate in the ceremonies commemorating the first anniversary of Tunisia's independence. In welcoming the Vice President at the Tunis airport, Prime Minister Bourguiba said: "The Tunisian people are convinced that within the heart of every American there is a love of liberty and respect for the individual. The

immense strength which is the United States is the strength on the side of free men, so that all free men will be spared any type of servitude, whatever its guise or appearance. It is a great hope for humanity and a great reassurance for men who have respect for the individual to feel everywhere and at all times the influence of the great American Republic throughout the world."

During the official conversations which followed, Mr. Bourguiba emphasized that Tunisia is firmly committed to democracy, liberty, and peace, and to the West. His nation can never be neutral, he said, nor accept communism, which Tunisia repudiates as contrary to its ideals and principles.

In May 1957 Ambassador James P. Richards, Special Assistant to President Eisenhower, visited Tunisia in the interests of the American Doctrine for the Middle East, which Tunisia has warmly endorsed.

At the request of the Tunisian Government, the United States has agreed to furnish economic and technical aid to the country. In March 1957 the United States signed an economic and technical assistance agreement with Tunisia, under which a U. S. Operations Mission was established there. The U. S. program is in addition to an $8 million U. S. grant for wheat, milk, and cheese that has been distributed among the population. This grant was given in order to offset conditions caused by crop failures in the center and south of the country. We have also agreed to launch a child-feeding program, and a private U. S. organization, the National Catholic Welfare Conference, recently started a used-clothing distribution program in the mountainous areas of Tunisia.

The State Department's International Educational Exchange Service has enabled a small number of Tunisians to visit the United States to observe and consult with Americans prominent in their specialized fields of work. The grantees have worked in medicine, education, agriculture, radio and television, police administration, journalism, social psychology, and cultural anthropology. In addition the exchange program is endeavoring to keep in touch with these grantees in order to continue to assist them through book services.

LIBYA

Southeast of Tunisia lies another newly independent state, the United Kingdom of Libya, extending over 1,000 miles along the North African Mediterranean coast. Across the sea to the north lie Greece and Italy. On the eastern border are Egypt and the Sudan; to the west, Tunisia and Algeria; and to the south, French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa.

Libya's geographic position is of considerable importance. The country is important to the defense of North Africa and hence of the southern flank of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization against any attack from the east. Similarly, it constitutes a barrier against penetration into central Africa.

Libya, an Italian colony since just before World War I, came into being as a consequence of a United Nations resolution of November 21, 1949, according to which Libya was to be constituted an independent, sovereign state, its independence to become effective as soon as possible, and not later than January 1, 1952. On December 24, 1951, the independence of the United Kingdom of Libya was proclaimed with King Idris as its monarch.

Libya's population of 1.2 million is principally Arab, and 95 percent of the people are Moslem. There are some 30,000 Italians in Tripolitania, as well as 4,000 other Europeans and some 3,500 Jews. The latter are descendants of refugees who fled from Jerusalem during the first century A. D., or subsequently from Spain during the Middle Ages. Less than 25 percent of the population lives in urban areas; more than half of the rural population, which is mostly tribal, lives a seminomadic life.

Libya is one of the poorest countries in the world. With an average annual per capita income of approximately $35, an illiteracy rate of 85 percent, an infant mortality rate of 3 out of 10 children during the first year of life, this country is in great need of outside help.

An Experiment in International Assistance

Recognizing its special responsibility to this new country, the United Nations has been helping Libya improve its social and economic conditions and to overcome its initial handicaps. To these U. N. efforts were added those of the United States, the United Kingdom, France, and other states, with a view to developing the country's resources and the latent skills of the population. Libya has thus become one of the world's largest experiments in international assistance to underdeveloped areas.

With the advice and help of the experts of these nations as well as with the hard work of its own people, Libya is expected to attain higher living standards while at the same time becoming increasingly secure in its national independence and territorial integrity.

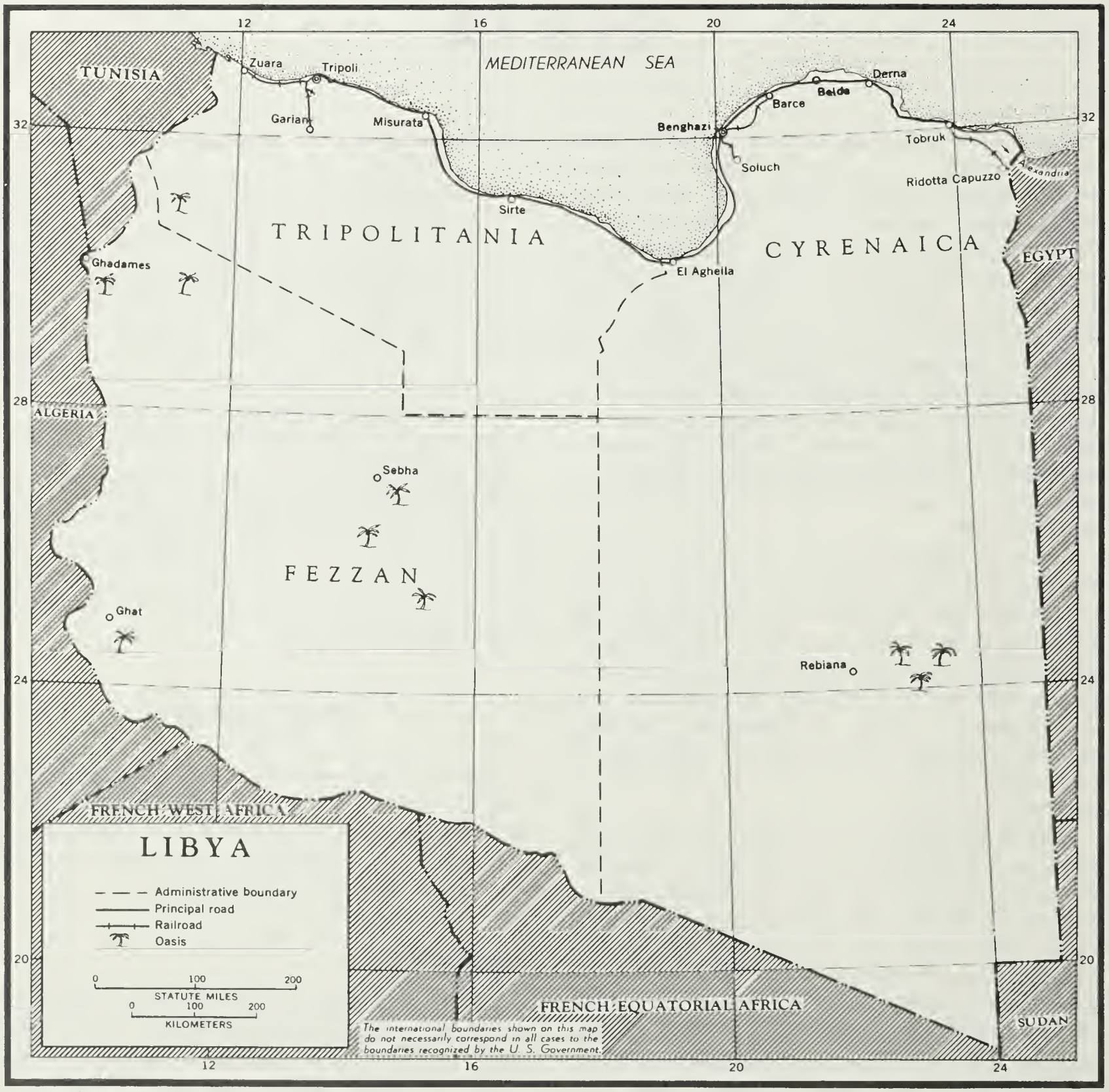
THE LAND

Libya occupies an area of 680,000 square miles, roughly one-fourth the size of the United States. It is divided into three provinces: Tripolitania, in the northwest; Cyrenaica, in the east; and the Fezzan, in the southwest.

Topography

About 90 percent of Libya is desert; there are no rivers or inland bodies of water. Libya's settled, cultivated area is less than half of 1 percent of her total area. Only along the Mediterranean coast and on the slopes of the two ranges of hills running parallel to the coast is there sufficient rainfall to permit dry farming.

The plateaus of northern Tripolitania and Cyrenaica are separated by the broad Sirte depression. Along the northwestern coast from the Tunisian border to the city of Misurata, a distance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Ridotta Capuzzo
Alexandria
EGYPT
TRIPOLITANIA
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Administrative boundary
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The international boundaries shown on this map do not necessarily correspond in all cases to the boundaries recognized by the U. S. Government.

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of approximately 200 miles, there is a series of oases. South of these oases is a low sandy plain, backed by hills that rise to heights of 2,000 to 3,000 feet in the northern limit of the Saharan plateau.

In the northeast the Gebel el Achdar highlands rise from the coastal plain and form the backbone of the promontory of Cyrenaica. The foothills and coastal uplands contain extensive areas that are fertile when irrigated.

To the south is a barren, monotonous desert. Within the desert are two major groups of oases—Cufra, in eastern Cyrenaica, and the oases of the Fezzan in the west. Along the southern border of Libya are the Tibesti Mountains, which rise to elevations of over 11,000 feet in the adjoining French territory of Chad.

Climate

The climate is characterized by aridity and wide daily ranges of temperature. Along the coast, however, temperatures are moderated somewhat by the Mediterranean Sea. Here the average daily temperatures range from 85° F. during the hottest months to 52° F. in the coldest.

Rainfall is low and unreliable throughout Libya and occurs chiefly in winter. Precipitation is heaviest on the seaward slopes of the plateaus of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. In central and southern Libya, the rainfall is negligible.

High sand-laden winds are frequent at all seasons. A feature peculiar to Libya is the *ghibli*—a hot, dry wind from the south that is most common in the spring and fall. In northern Libya it often raises the temperature considerably within a few hours, sometimes bringing temperatures of 85° F. even in January.

PRINCIPAL CITIES

Libya has two capitals, Tripoli and Benghazi, the Government alternating its seat periodically between these two cities. Most of the foreign missions reside in Tripoli.

Tripoli is a comparatively modern city of 120,000 inhabitants. It is Libya's chief seaport and tourist center. In the old section there are medieval buildings of historical interest, while the Roman monument—the triumphal Arch of Marcus Aurelius—attests to Tripoli's ancient splendor. The "new" city was built mostly during Italian colonial days.

The many mosques, palm trees, and small windowless Arab houses give Tripoli a distinctive and attrative flavor and color. The magnificent ruins of the Roman cities—Leptis Magna and Sabratha—are 63 miles and 30 miles respectively from Tripoli.

Benghazi, the main seaport of Cyrenaica, has a population of 70,000. Over 60 percent of the city was destroyed during World War II, when Benghazi changed hands five times between the Axis forces and the British Eighth Army.

One hundred miles east of Benghazi are located the ruins of the classic city of Cyrene, founded by the ancient Greeks in 631 B. C. Located on a hill about 1,800 feet high, the ruins of this classic city, which once numbered 100,000 inhabitants, are surrounded by mountains covered with cypress trees. In ancient times Cyrene was one of the most flourishing centers of classic Greek culture and commerce in the entire Hellenic world. The only rival of the Venus de Milo statue was found in Cyrene—the Venus de Cyrene. The ruins, discovered in the 19th century, include ancient Greek temples, tombs, and shrines.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

The name of Libya was the Greek designation for all North Africa. In ancient times Libya was ruled by the Phoenicians, who colonized the Tripolitan coast and who were overthrown by the Carthaginians in the 6th century B. C. Cyrenaica was founded and developed by the Greeks.

It was the Romans who, having captured Carthage, pushed on to conquer and unite not only Libya but much of North Africa. Then followed successively the conquests of the Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, Normans, Spaniards, Turks, Italians, and finally the French.

Barbary Pirates

Libya came to American attention early in U. S. history during the 5-year U. S. war on the Barbary pirates (1801–5). To fight this war the United States built five warships and created the U. S. Marine Corps. Four of these new U. S. warships were sent to blockade the Barbary State

The important seaport of Tripoli.

of Tripoli in 1802—a venture which failed. One ship, the *Philadelphia*, ran aground. The corsairs captured it, imprisoned the crew, and refloated the ship. Soon afterward Stephen Decatur, one of America's great naval heroes, boarded the *Philadelphia*, set her afire, and destroyed her.

Later an American crew captured a Barbary ship, renamed her the *Intrepid*, and filled her with gunpowder with the intention of sailing her into the anchored corsair fleet and blowing it up. Before this could be done, the *Intrepid* herself blew up, and all hands were lost. Each Memorial Day the U. S. Ambassador to Libya lays a wreath at the graves of five of the crew of the *Intrepid* in a cemetery overlooking Tripoli harbor.

Finally, under the command of the U. S. Consul, William Eaton, a small group of U. S. Marines, aided by a force of Greeks and Arabs recruited from Egypt, attacked the city of Derna on April 27, 1805. After a 3-day fight, with heavy support from U. S. warships in the harbor, Eaton's forces took the city.[1]

Under Italian Rule

Toward the end of the 19th century the Ottoman Empire, which had been ruling Libya since 1551, became weak and open to outside penetration. In 1911 Italy, following the example of other European and Balkan nations in dividing the Ottoman Empire, attacked the Turks of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. After a year of war Turkey ceded Libya.

During the final century of Ottoman rule an important Moslem sect, the Senussi, was founded in Cyrenaica by Sidi Mohammed Ibn Ali El Senussi. For almost two decades after the departure of the Turks the Senussis resisted Italian control of the Libyan desert areas. Finally in 1932 the Italians succeeded in breaking Senussi temporal power and imposed their rule on the desert tribes. The Senussi leader, now King Idris I, had escaped to Egypt.

Under Italian rule efforts were made to develop Libya as an outlet for overpopulated Italy. Italians excavated and restored ancient Roman and Greek archeological remains, developed the country for tourism, built roads, hotels, and beautiful cities.

Italy's control over Libya came to an end in World War II. In 1940 Sayid Idris, still in exile, formed a Libyan Arab force to aid the Allied cause in Egypt. Following British victories on the coast and French successes in the desert areas, the Allies assumed full control of Libya and Sayid Idris returned to Cyrenaica.

[1] On the basis of the above actions the Marines added the phrase "to the shores of Tripoli" to their official song.

Independence Declared

Under the terms of the treaty of peace with the Allies, concluded in 1947, Italy relinquished control of Libya, but the four Allied powers—Britain, France, the United States, and Soviet Russia—were unable to agree on what disposition should be made of the country. The problem was then referred to the United Nations which, as noted above, voted to grant Libya its independence not later than January 1, 1952. On December 24, 1951, Libya declared its independence.

THE GOVERNMENT

The United Kingdom of Libya is a constitutional monarchy with a federal system of government. The powers of the king under the constitution are considerable.

The kingdom has a bicameral legislature consisting of a senate and a house of representatives. The senate has 24 members, 8 from each province. Half of the senators are appointed by the king, while the other half are elected by the provincial legislative assemblies. A new senate was chosen and elected on March 24, 1956, for an 8-year term. The members of the house of representatives are elected for 4 years on the basis of one deputy for each 20,000 persons. No province can be represented by fewer than 5 deputies. Presently, Tripolitania has 35 seats, Cyrenaica 15, and the Fezzan 5—for a total of 55.

The king, the senate, or the house of representatives can initiate laws. Budget or tax laws can be initiated only by the king or the house. A bill passed by both houses goes to the king for promulgation within 30 days. A bill returned by the king must be reconsidered by parliament. A bill repassed by a two-thirds majority of each chamber must be promulgated within 30 days. The king has power to dissolve the lower house.

Government functions are administered by a number of ministries under cabinet members who are appointed by the king on the recommendation of the prime minister. In theory the cabinet is constitutionally responsible to the lower house of parliament, which has the power by a no-confidence vote to force its resignation.

The king appoints the governors of each province. They in turn are assisted by an appointed executive council and an elected legislative assembly.

Although political issues have at times led to the formation of political groups, based upon tribal and regional alliances, there are no political parties as such in Libya.

LIBYA'S ECONOMY

The economy of Libya is almost entirely agricultural and pastoral. However, because of frequent droughts, poor soil, meager water supply, and lack of modern methods and machinery, Libya holds little prospect of supporting more than a simple agrarian economy, even with foreign financial assistance.

In order to maintain governmental services and to initiate economic development projects the Libyan Government must rely upon foreign economic and technical assistance through grants-in-aid, contributions to development programs, and expenditures on military projects.

Agriculture

Over three-fourths of the population are occupied with agriculture and animal husbandry. Agriculture is limited to northern Tripolitania, the plateau of Cyrenaica, and the oases of the interior. Barley, wheat, dates, esparto grass, citrus fruits, and olive oil are the principal products, generally meeting domestic requirements and providing some exportable surpluses.

Livestock, kept by nomads and seminomads, provide wool and hides in modest quantities.

Coastal fishing provides tuna, sardines, and various other species of fish. Sponges are also collected in the coastal waters of the country. Most of these sea products are exported.

Industry

Libya has as yet no significant mineral production. There are possibilities of oil deposits, and in late 1955 oil concessions were granted to eight international oil companies. American companies have concessions of approximately 145,000 acres.

Manufacturing in Libya is relatively unimportant. However, there is a growing number of small manufacturing establishments engaged in process-

ing agricultural and fishery products, as well as handicraft industries producing textiles, footwear, leather goods, jewelry, and carpets.

Trade and Communications

During 1955 the total value of Libya's imports was $40 million, while its exports were valued at only $12 million. The deficit in Libya's balance of payments was offset primarily by foreign military expenditures and by contributions and grants-in-aid from foreign countries.

There are approximately 1,700 miles of bituminous-surfaced roads, including the 1,140-mile east-west coastal highway and some 7,000 miles of unsurfaced roads and desert tracks. The highway, running along the coastline from the Tunisian border to the Egyptian frontier, connects all the principal towns and ports including Tripoli, Misurata, Benghazi, Derna, and Tobruk. Railroads in Libya only supplement the road system and are adequate for normal requirements.

Tripoli is an important way station on trans-African air routes, with planes of some 12 international airlines landing there. The country has 17 airfields, some of which can now accommodate large commercial aircraft.

DEVELOPMENT

The achievement of Libyan independence brought a strong urge among its leaders to overcome the tremendous handicaps facing the young country. Lacking natural resources, the Libyan Government is working all the harder to develop its one major resource—the skills of its people—as well as to improve the economic potential of the country in the fields of agriculture, public utilities, transportation and communications, education, and social services. In this effort Libya is assisted by the United Nations as well as by the United States, the United Kingdom, and other nations.

Aid From the United Nations

The United Nations has devoted much attention to Libya—in fact, Libya is today, on a per capita basis, the largest recipient of U. N. technical assistance.

As early as July 1950, an exploratory U. N. mission was sent to Libya to study its economic and social problems and to assess technical assistance needs. The U. N. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) later sent a team of experts to prepare a comprehensive plan for economic and

An instructor with his typing class at a U. N. technical and clerical training center.

social development. Their report, completed in January 1952, was adopted by the Libyan Government as a basis of its 5-year development plan, and it provided a foundation for the U. N. Technical Assistance Board in orienting the aid program in Libya. The total amount spent by the United Nations and its specialized agencies over the period 1950–55 came to about $4 million, half of which was contributed by the United States.

A major part of the U. N. effort is in the field of education and training. Thus in Tripoli there is a Technical and Clerical Training Center, for which the International Labor Organization provides a staff of 35 teachers to train junior civil servants and artisans for Government service and private employment. Hundreds of young Libyans are receiving instruction in typing, bookkeeping, commercial practice, office procedure, carpentry, blacksmithing, mechanical drawing, and other fields. The Tripolitan Department of Education pays for the normal operating expenses of the center and provides some of the staff.

Each of the three provinces of Libya has a 5-year development plan for education, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) gives technical assistance to these programs by operating nine different projects. UNESCO instructors, besides preparing textbooks, are training future teachers.

In addition, the United Nations and its agencies have sent abroad more than 80 young Libyans to study various aspects of public administration, ranging from sanitary engineering to improved tax collection methods.

In the field of agriculture, FAO experts are demonstrating modern methods of spraying orchards, fighting insect pests, and pruning fruit trees. They are also demonstrating new methods in the processing of hides, skins, and dates, and in the packing of citrus fruits. FAO has also furnished exports for experiments in crop and seed improvement, particularly in drought-resisting plants.

The World Health Organization (WHO) and the U. N. Children's Fund have also been active in Libya, primarily in the inoculation of children and young people against tuberculosis. WHO has also furnished a public health administrator who advises the federal and provincial authorities as well as several health educators, who work principally with Libyan women.

United States Aid

The United States has, from the very beginning of Libya's nationhood, pledged itself to do its full share in helping the people of the new country to increase their opportunities for economic advancement. To this end we have supported the activities of the United Nations and its specialized agencies, and we have also given direct economic and technical aid to Libya.

On January 21, 1950, Libya and the United States concluded an agreement for technical assistance which provided for the establishment of the U. S. Operations Mission in Libya. In planning its programs, the mission utilized the basic studies made by the United Nations in order to avoid duplication and overlapping. Under the Libyan-American Technical Assistance Service, which was organized in the period immediately preceding Libyan independence, only technical aid was given to Libya.

In September 1954, however, Libya and the United States signed an economic aid agreement, under the terms of which the United States agreed to make available to Libya during the life of the agreement (until 1971) $40 million for economic development. The Libyan-American Reconstruction Commission was created to receive and manage the use of these funds and to develop and scrutinize needed projects. On the Commission there are two Americans—the executive director and the management engineer—and four Libyans.

Taking into consideration the absorptive capacity of the country, the technical cooperation and development assistance programs realistically stress gradual expansion of production while placing strong emphasis on the training of Libyans for future activities. Because of its financial limitations, Libya's contributions to these programs have in the main consisted of providing such facilities and services as buildings, maintenance, interpreters, clerks, and guards.

Under these programs:

. . . U. S. agricultural advisers have been training Libyans in farm extension techniques and have been working on production problems.

. . . Agricultural departments are being established in five provincial schools.

. . . U. S. specialists are setting up vocational training departments in the schools of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.

. . . Water control and irrigation programs have

been started in order to prevent flashfloods in the wadies—river beds which are dry except in the rainy season. Dikes and dams have been built in six wadi systems to check runoff which wastes topsoil and water.

. . . Through medical preventive and curative programs, American specialists are helping to combat disease, poor health, and undernourishment.

In addition, during a 2-year period (1953–55) alone, the U. S. Air Force provided 53,000 hours of formal classroom and on-the-job training for 442 Libyans in mechanics, plumbing, refrigeration, sanitation, electric maintenance, carpentry, and insect control.

United States technical and development assistance to Libya in fiscal year 1956 amounted to approximately $17 million. Amounts approved for FY 1957 total approximately $12.5 million, but the expenditure of this year's aid will not be completed for 2 years. Libya was given a special grant of $7 million in March 1957. Dollar expenditures by Americans stationed in Libya—the U. S. Air Force, Corps of Engineers, and contractors—also help the economy of the country.

Libyan requests for surplus wheat to relieve famine conditions brought about by prolonged drought have been met by U. S. shipments of some 82,000 tons of wheat between 1954 and 1957. The total value of these shipments—made available under the provisions of the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act, which authorizes the use of surplus U. S. farm products for relief purposes abroad—is estimated at $11.5 million, including packaging and transportation charges. Local distribution costs are borne by the Libyan Government.

This assistance is being supplemented by the work of U. S. voluntary agencies. CARE, which began operations in Libya in 1957, will provide nearly $2 million worth of surplus milk, cheese, and possibly rice or cornmeal to school children, orphans, widows, the aged, and hospital patients.

LIBYA IN WORLD AFFAIRS

Like other newly independent nations, Libya is primarily interested in internal development and in friendly relations with other freedom-loving nations.

Thoroughly imbued with the spirit of Arab nationalism and patriotism, Libyans understandably are suspicious of Communist covert or overt imperialist expansionism. In the words of the joint U. S.-Libyan communique issued on March

Students of the Vocational Agriculture Training Center learning the use of siphon tubes for diverting water from irrigation ditches.

The Brak Mosque in an oasis of the Province of Fezzan.

20, 1957, at the conclusion of talks between Ambassador James P. Richards and Libyan officials headed by the then Premier Mustafa Ben Halim, "the aggressive intentions of international communism offer the greatest present threat to national independence and the peace and security of the world community."

Adhering to the best features of the Arab League, which they joined in March 1953, Libyans aim at cultivating Arab culture and perpetuating the best possible Arab and Moslem traditions of individual freedom, tolerance, and human dignity—concepts which are the direct antithesis of the Communist doctrine.

In 1956 the Soviet Union established an embassy in Tripoli, but Libya rejected Soviet offers of economic and military assistance.

Libya desires to form a closer association with the West, and especially with Tunisia and Morocco. In January 1957 a Tunisian-Libyan Treaty of Friendship was concluded as a first step in that direction. To the east, Libya follows closely events in Egypt, and although the Libyans' sympathy was clearly with the Egyptians during the Anglo-French hostilities in the Suez Canal area, Libya found it necessary to expel the Egyptian Embassy's military attaché for activities which were declared inimical to Libyan national sovereignty. On the other hand, Libya requested the British not to use their army and air force bases in Cyrenaica for attacks on Egypt. This request the British observed.

UNITED STATES–LIBYAN RELATIONS

As noted earlier, Libya first came to American attention early in the 19th century, during our military action against Barbary pirates who had been operating from the coast of Libya. One hundred and fifty years later the United States enthusiastically supported the U. N. proposal leading to Libyan independence in 1951 and to Libya's subsequent membership in the United Nations.

The United States is officially represented in Libya by an embassy and a U. S. Operations Mission in Tripoli and an embassy branch in the co-capital of Benghazi. There are also U. S. Information Service offices and libraries in those two cities. Effective use has been made of the facilities of the U. S. Information Service in connection with the technical assistance program. Through the means

of pamphlets, signs, and audiovisual materials, information on health, sanitation, well drilling, and livestock improvement is being disseminated to the people of various regions.

The United States maintains an international educational exchange program with Libya, providing grants for Libyans to travel to the United States for study or training, particularly in the fields of law, banking, petroleum, and police administration.

U. S. Air Force Facilities

The 17th U. S. Air Force Headquarters at Wheelus Air Force Base and other U. S. Air Force facilities are located in the Tripoli area. Additional Air Force facilities are located near Benghazi. The U. S.–Libyan Base Rights Agreement of September 1954, which has been hailed as "an important contribution to the defense of the free world," and the subsequent investment of close to $100 million in the construction of Wheelus Air Force Base attest to the primary strategic importance which the United States attaches to Libya. Wheelus represents a vital link in the worldwide chain of the Strategic Air Command bases.

In its relations with Libya and other nations of the Middle East the United States does not seek to establish spheres of influence in that area but, as stated in a joint U. S.–Libyan communique in March 1957, U. S. policy "is devoted to strengthening the nations of the area so that they may be masters of their own destinies."

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